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destruction. At this portentous moment, Farmers-Brother interposed. He replied not to his brother chief, but, with a sagacity truly aboriginal, he caused a cessation of the council, introduced good cheer, commended the eloquence of Red-Jacket, and, before the meeting had re-assembled, with the aid of other prudent chiefs, he had moderated the fury of his nation to a more salutary review of the question before them. Suffice it to say, the treaty was concluded, and the Western district, at this day, owes no small portion of its power and influence to the counsels of a savage, in comparison with whom, for genius, heroism, virtue, or any other quality that can adorn the bawble of a diadem, not only George the Fourth and Louis le Désiré, but the German Emperor and Czar of Muscovy, alike dwindle into insignificance.' "— Book V. chap. vi. pp. 104, 105.

The volume contains portraits of several of the distinguished Indian characters, and among the rest those of Red-Jacket and Pocahontas. The two latter are on steel ; and the portrait of the princess, which is from a copy of the original, taken in London, in 1616, while she was at the English court, is not ill executed. She was then at the age of twenty-one. The costume is English. Some excellent wood-cuts, partly copies of ancient drawings, and illustrative of Indian scenes and manners, also accompany the volume.

ART. II. — *Sylva Americana ; or a Description of the Forest Trees indigenous to the United States, Practically and Botanically considered. Illustrated by more than One Hundred Engravings.* By DANIEL J. BROWNE. Boston. 1832. 8vo. pp. 408.

THE subject of American Forest Trees is one which has long engaged the attention of enlightened European naturalists, and has more especially given rise to the splendid "*Sylva*" of Francis Andrew Michaux. To this accomplished and liberal-minded Frenchman this country certainly owes a heavy debt of gratitude. If our people, or our rulers, should become awakened to a just sense of the immense value of our forests, before we feel it to our cost by their destruction or serious diminution, it will be owing directly or indirectly more to the

publication of the "*Sylva Americana*," than to all other causes together. This work has been faithfully and elegantly translated by our accomplished countryman, Augustus L. Hillhouse. But the style in which the book is printed, both in the original and the translation, and more especially the number and beauty of its colored plates, have rendered it of necessity very expensive, and it consequently has found but few purchasers; a fact the more to be regretted as it was published at the cost of the author, who, we are informed by Mr. Hillhouse, has executed this work at a price ill becoming the modest fortune of a man of letters.

Its descriptions may be found in a much cheaper form in the valuable work, by our fellow-citizen, Daniel J. Browne, the title of which we have placed at the head of this article. Mr. Browne's is a very useful work, executed with great neatness and in a type easily read, and containing, within a very reasonable compass, much authentic information on a most interesting subject. Much originality could not be expected, at the present day, in any treatise on such topics; but Mr. Browne certainly deserves great credit for the extensive research and sound judgment with which he has selected his materials from the best sources, and the agreeable manner in which he has disposed them.

The work is divided into three parts. The first is a treatise on Dendrology, or the structure and growth of trees generally. This portion of the work is of a more scientific and less popular cast than the rest, and may seem at the first view little likely to interest the mere general reader. It is, however, succinct and clear, and will well repay an attentive perusal. The anatomy and physiology of trees are subjects which have been till lately very imperfectly developed, and which we fear receive even now little attention from any class of persons except professed botanists. To become thoroughly versed in these sciences, as in most others, would require the labor of years, but some knowledge of their leading general principles must be deemed essential to any well-educated American, by all who reflect for a moment on the extent and importance of our forests; and we know not where such knowledge could be more cheaply and conveniently procured than from our author. — The next and longest portion of the volume consists in descriptions of the different species of the forest trees of this country, accompanied by neat and distinct

engravings. These descriptions are taken principally, if not wholly, from the *Sylva* of Michaux ; but Mr. Browne has certainly rendered an important public service by placing the valuable information, contained in that rare and splendid book, within the reach of the community generally.

The work concludes with a treatise on the rearing and management of trees. This part abounds in minute and practical directions, which are for the most part sanctioned, to the best of our knowledge, by the precepts and practice of the highest authorities. In short, the volume is one of the best horticultural publications which has issued from the American press ; and we cannot but regard its appearance, and that of other valuable productions on the same topics, as highly seasonable at the present period.

If this country has been highly distinguished in any respect by the bounty of nature, it is in the number and variety of its trees. If we were compelled to describe the territory of the United States in a few words, we could not do it more philosophically than in the language of Volney, who represents it as one vast forest, diversified by occasional cultivated intervals. With the exception of some of the prairies of the Valley of the Mississippi, we are not aware that there is any considerable section within our present States, which was originally destitute of wood. Beyond the immediate vicinity of our large towns, we find every stream thickly shaded by overhanging branches, and every mountain, with the exception of a few of the highest, covered with a leafy screen of all varieties of shade, from its base to its summit.

The progress of population and of improvement, astonishing as it has been, has been insufficient to efface to any degree this distinguishing feature of American scenery ; and the striking picture, drawn by one of our own poets, of the native aspect of the country, has not yet lost its general resemblance.

“Then all this youthful paradise around,
And all the broad and boundless mainland lay
Cooled by the interminable wood, that frowned
O'er mount and vale, where never summer ray
Glanced, till the strong tornado broke its way,
Through the gray giants of the sylvan wild ;
Yet many a sheltered glade, with blossoms gay
Beneath the showering sky and sunshine mild.
Within the shaggy arms of that dark forest smiled.”

The extent of our woods is not more remarkable, than the various kinds of trees which compose them. It is stated by Michaux, that in the United States there are one hundred and forty species of forest trees, which attain to a greater height than thirty feet, while in France there are only eighteen of the same description. Of the solid advantages which we derive from this abundant variety, we shall say nothing at present. It needs only a cursory glance, to perceive how much it enhances the beauty of our natural scenery. "I was never tired," says an intelligent English traveller, "of the forest scenery of America, although I passed through it from day to day. The endless diversity of foliage always prevents it from being monotonous." The variety of shape and tints in their green foliage is not, however, the chief distinction of our woods over those of the old world. They surpass them far more in the rich and various hues of their autumnal leaves. This, if not the most striking, is certainly the most unique feature of an American landscape. What natural scenery can surpass in beauty that presented by one of our forests to our view, in one of the brilliant and serene afternoons of our Indian summer, when the trees are clothed with a tapestry of the richest gold and purple and scarlet; resembling and almost rivalling the most gorgeous hues of our autumnal sunsets!

It is not the mere variety of coloring, which is the peculiar characteristic of our fading leaves. This variety exists also in European woods, though to a less extent; for, as has been already stated, their catalogue of forest trees is far more scanty than ours. But their leaves, in divesting themselves of their summer green, lay aside also all their brilliancy, and assume a complexion proverbially dull and faded. It is a peculiarity, on the contrary, of many of our forest trees, that their leaves, in changing their hue, lose little or nothing of their brightness, and that their autumnal dress is not only far richer, but scarcely less lively, than their freshest June liveries.

This circumstance is generally ascribed to some peculiarity in our climate, and especially to the manner in which the cold weather makes its first approaches. But this manner varies almost every year, and yet our trees exhibit annually the same splendid changes. For this, as well as for other reasons, we are inclined to think, that the peculiarity is not in the climate, but in the trees themselves, and that it is one of those shades

of difference, which distinguish in almost every instance the plants of America from their kindred species in the old world. A transplanted American maple, for instance, would probably undergo the same splendid transmutations in an English park as in its native forest. This supposition has been formed on much consideration, and is besides sanctioned by the opinion of an eminent English botanist, who has resided in this country for several years.

We have observed that scarcely any considerable portion of this country is entirely devoid of magnificent forest trees. But whatever striking instances of the truth of this remark we may find in New England, and more especially in Vermont and Maine, it must be admitted that he who would behold sylvan scenery on its most magnificent scale, should cross the Alleghanies, and visit the great Valley of the Mississippi. Here he will find vast tracts, into which the axe of the woodman has never penetrated. These are covered with a coat of vegetable mould, exceeding in many places the depth of our richest soils. We find accordingly a luxuriance of vegetation, to which nothing in our own State affords a parallel. It is true that with us there is here and there a gigantic elm or buttonwood, which might take rank with the noblest specimens of western growth. But in travelling in Kentucky or Indiana, we find trees, at every step, of six or seven feet in diameter; so that most of our woods, compared as a whole with theirs, seem to be but as the product of yesterday. Every plant appears to partake of this gigantic character. Thus the wild grape vine, which with us rarely grows larger than a stout walking-stick, in our Western States sometimes surpasses in diameter the body of a full-grown man. This fact we have verified by actual admeasurement.

The majesty of our western forests is not a little increased by the circumstance that they are generally free from undergrowth. The banks of the upper Mississippi especially are covered with trees of the largest size, shooting up to a lofty height from the smooth levels or gentle swells of the green prairies beneath, like the oaks in the finest parks of England. So tastefully are these trees grouped by the hand of nature, and so entirely clear is the green prairie grass from undergrowth, that the spectator can hardly avoid imagining, that he is looking not at a new country, but at one which was once

peopled by a highly-cultivated community, who have been long since swept away with every vestige of their wealth and refinement, except their stately groves and verdant lawns.

We have thus far spoken of our forests merely as a predominant and magnificent feature of American scenery. But it is scarcely necessary to say, that they have other claims to our attention, of a far more solid character. It is to our forests that we have been indebted for two hundred years for our fuel and our shelter. How much of the progress of New England at least, since its first settlement by our forefathers, has been owing to the liberality of Nature in this particular! Whatever were the calamities, in other respects, of those much-enduring men, they were at least exempted from the extreme and probably fatal suffering, to which they would have been subjected in a thinly-wooded region. Had the aborigines possessed that determined and unsparing hostility to large trees, which seems to have actuated many of their successors, it is probable that these northern settlements would never have had a being.

One of the most remarkable of the forest trees of the United States is the White Pine, called in England the Weymouth pine, and known by botanists as the *Pinus Strobus*. This tree must be familiar to many of our readers in various ways, as it abounds in our neighbourhood, and as its branches are more frequently employed than those of any other tree, for the decoration of our Catholic and Episcopal churches. It may be distinguished at first sight from every other evergreen growing in this State, by the lightness and delicacy of its foliage, as well as by its less formal mode of growth. On a closer view, it is found to differ from all other pines or spruces here or elsewhere, in being what is called five-leaved, that is, in putting forth its leaves in sheaths each containing five. The leaves of all evergreen trees, except the pine family, are without a sheath, and those of other pines grow in sheaths containing two or three. This tree is certainly the most majestic in the country, when it reaches its full growth in our forests. Though it does not spread in a graceful sheaf like the elm, nor rise up in a regular spire like the fir, it more than compensates for the want of these beauties, by its loftiness. None of the productions of this country approach it in this particular. It is sometimes said to reach the height of more than two hundred feet, and Michaux actually measured one which had been felled, and which exceeded one hundred and fifty;

and the trunk is singularly smooth and straight. A magnificent appearance is far from its chief recommendation. We know not that we in New England are equally indebted to any other production of our forests ; not even to the oak. Michaux remarks, that throughout the Northern States, except in the larger capitals, seven tenths of the houses are of wood, of which seven tenths, three quarters, estimated at half a million, (this estimate was made nearly thirty years ago,) are of white pine. In the first part of this statement, there is a mistake quite remarkable, in a writer of such singular research and accuracy. If we except the larger capitals, we ought to say not that seven tenths, but nine tenths at least, of houses in the northern States, are wooden ; indeed the number of those of a different description may be considered as too small to deserve notice ; and of these nine tenths the great mass are of white pine.

This tree owes its selection for this most important purpose to one quality in particular, the small expense of labor at which it can be fashioned and put together. While it is more durable and better able to bear exposure to the fierce temperature and sudden changes of our climate, than any other pine which abounds in New England, it is also lighter, softer, and more free from knots. In favorable situations the diameter of the trunk varies from three to seven feet ; and thus it furnishes planks for building of ample dimensions. This tree has also one important quality in common with the locust, which is denied to many other of our best timber trees. We mean the great proportion which the heart, or perfect wood, bears even in young trees to the alburnum or sap wood, being not less than eleven to one in trees of a foot in diameter. In all timber after felling, it is the sap wood which is the first to decay, and which is as unfit for any useful purpose, as the unripened products of nature generally. Hence it is an important element in the value of the white pine, that it ripens its wood at so early a period. It is true after all, that in point of durability, when freely exposed to the elements, or when set in the ground, its timber cannot compete with many of the harder woods ; but if well seasoned and kept carefully painted, it will endure for centuries, without any symptoms of decay, as we find attested by many wooden houses, more especially in our large towns. Where entirely covered, it seems to be incorruptible. But, were its durability less, the other qualities

to which we have adverted, namely, its lightness and softness, would form a most liberal equivalent.

It is not easy to estimate, how much the rapid advancement of New England may have been owing to the abundance of this valuable tree. The importance of shelter is a point which it requires few lessons from our winter climate to set forth ; and by no tree with which we are acquainted, could this want be supplied so rapidly and easily, as by the white pine. At the value which human labor has always maintained among us, the difference of expense to New England, which would have resulted from the general employment of the oak, for instance, instead of the pine, for our houses, would be enormous. In many parts of the Valley of the Mississippi, this pine, as well as almost every other species of pine, is exceedingly rare. The settlers are in consequence obliged to substitute the oak, both for their houses and their furniture. Their dwellings, (we speak of the new settlers,) are generally of oak filled in with earth, and are quite inferior, both in appearance and comfort, to those which we find in the newly-cleared lands of Maine.

We are scarcely less indebted to the white pine, for our commercial and naval, than for our civil, architecture. It is this tree, which gives us, not indeed the frames, but the masts of our vessels, for which it is admirably fitted, by the degree in which it combines the qualities of durability and lightness, as well as by the straightness of its trunk. Its place for this purpose, in the Northern and Middle States, could hardly be supplied. During our colonial existence, its value was fully appreciated by the mother country ; and, more than one hundred years ago, some statutes were passed, restricting the cutting of trees proper for masts. We have found no evidence, however, that these statutes were ever enforced ; and, however useful in their design, they would interfere quite too much with private liberty, to render their renewal desirable, so far as respects the land of individuals. But it is certainly well worthy the consideration of the legislature of Maine, whether effectual measures should not be taken, for the preservation, and perhaps the propagation of valuable timber on the public lands, within her jurisdiction ; and the deep interest which our own commonwealth has in those lands, might render a respectful interposition on her part advisable.

The fame of the white pine has long since extended to

Europe, principally by means of the stocks which have been exported to England, to supply in part her immense demand for masts and spars. The living tree has also been introduced into that country, but is not highly appreciated, and we have found no English writer who does it full justice. The truth is, however, that the climate of England is not fitted to its development. The limits within which it flourishes in this country, are the 43d and 47th degrees of latitude. Now no part of the Island of Great Britain has a climate which answers to that of this region. The northern extremity of Scotland, which lies in about the 58th or 59th degree of latitude, is visited with winters far less rigorous than the great majority of our own. Besides, there are few situations in Great Britain, which furnish the soil in which this tree chiefly delights. The most magnificent specimens of the white pine in this country are found in the depths of our forests, in a virgin soil covered with the accumulated mould of centuries, and above all on the banks of rivers, or in the beds of large cedar swamps. In pleasure grounds, it seldom rises to its greatest height, or at least requires a longer time to do so, than has yet been allowed in any instance within our knowledge. It grows, however, with considerable rapidity, and soon acquires a loftiness and bulk equal to that of most cultivated trees; and its highly polished bark and light silvery foliage, render it, from the time it springs from the soil, a desirable accession to every shrubbery.

The next of our principal forest trees, which we shall notice, is the White Oak. The general appearance of oaks is more familiar to us of this region, than that of any other class of forest trees, except the elm and the plane tree. The oak is far less lofty than the pine, and has no pretensions to the elegance of the elm; but as an emblem of robust vigor, it stands, both in the old and new world, at the head of all the sons of the forest. In short, a full-grown oak can be considered as occupying the same place among fine trees, which the Hercules does among fine statues, and may be described in the terms applied to that magnificent work of art by an English poet, as "strength embodied." Such has been its character in all ages. It is also supposed to be a tree of slower growth and longer life than any other, though its superiority in this last respect over the chestnut, is far from incontestable. The useful qualities of its wood have also been

appreciated from time immemorial, in every country in the temperate zone. For these reasons probably, the oak has been regarded with a degree of veneration, from the earliest ages of mankind. The first funereal monument on record was an oak tree. But in no country has it been more valued, more honored or cherished, than in that of our forefathers, and with abundant reason, as forming the chief material of those wooden walls, to which they have more than once owed their national existence. Hence it has long been recommended to us by many historical and poetical associations, and the achievements of our gallant navy, as well as the vast benefits, which we have derived from our commerce, have given it a new and far stronger claim to our veneration.

Of all the species of this genus, which grow in the latitude of New England, the most valued is the white oak, (*Quercus Alba*.) This is easily distinguished from every other tree of the same kind in our vicinity by the whiteness of its bark, and by the persisting, or holding on, of a few of the dried leaves, in the winter season. Its leaves are also without prickles or bristles at the end of their lobes, a quality in which it agrees with no large oak in this State except the swamp white oak, (*Quercus prinus discolor*.) It bears a greater analogy than any other oaks, to the celebrated oak of England, European white oak, or *Quercus pedunculata*.

Which of the two trees furnishes the finer timber, is a question which has been investigated with great care. It is stated by high authority, that the wood of the American white oak is lighter, more elastic, and more flexible, than that of the English, but that it is on the whole weaker and less durable; and this opinion is sanctioned by a large number of English writers. We are inclined however to doubt, whether the question has been fully settled by facts; for some of those who have expressed such an opinion in strong terms, conclude by admitting, that, after all, American vessels might be no less durable than English, were their timber equally well seasoned. The white oak was largely employed in the frame of our favorite frigate, which was built forty years ago. In the course of the very thorough repair to which that vessel was lately subjected, many of the white oak timbers of her frame were found in excellent condition; and it was stated on the best authority, that in several instances, timbers of this description were sound, while others by their side, of the southern live oak,

had decayed. Now the superiority of the live oak in point of durability, over the oak of any other country, has never yet been questioned. The English oak, however, if really superior, could be easily multiplied in our Northern and Middle States. It has been already introduced, and some fine specimens of more than twenty years' growth may be seen in our neighbourhood.

The timber generally selected for ship-building is what is called the pasture oak. This is greatly preferred to that which grows in crowded forests, where the trees, from their vicinity to each other, are robbed of much of the nutriment which they derive from the soil, as well as of the genial influence of the sun and air. Hence the building of a single large vessel requires the timber of many acres, and as the white oak is constantly felled in great quantities, both for home consumption and for exportation, the period cannot be distant when serious difficulty will be experienced in procuring a supply of this valuable wood.

In this connexion, it may be proper to make one or two remarks on the felling of trees. It is generally agreed, that the durability of timber depends materially on the season when this operation is performed ; but what that season is, is a question on which directly opposite opinions are held by the ablest writers. The principal cause of the decay of wood of all descriptions, is thought to be the sap, which remains after felling ; and hence the desired object is, to procure timber as free as possible from this ingredient. To this end, it has been recommended to fell the tree in the winter season, as it is then deemed to contain the smallest quantity of sap ; and such we believe is the general practice. This doctrine, however, has been opposed with great ability, by the late Colonel Pickering, who states, and with truth, that trees are not devoid of sap in winter, but that it exists in abundance, though greatly thickened by the cold. He maintains, therefore, that it is much more difficult to expel than in summer, when in a more liquid form, and that the proper time for felling the tree is, not when it contains least sap, but when the sap which it does contain, may most easily escape or be expelled. This opinion certainly seems to be the better one, though the winter season is so much more convenient on many accounts than any other for the procuring of timber, that the old practice will probably maintain its ground. But whatever may be thought

of the correctness of Colonel Pickering's theory, no one will question the propriety of the suggestion, with which he concludes his remarks, that the point should be determined by actual experiments, under the direction of our Navy Board, or some other high scientific authority. — Besides the white oak, there are four other species in our vicinity, which grow to a large size. Of these the most valuable are the Swamp White, and the Black Oak. The swamp white oak is not abundant, and grows only in moist soils. It has been less used than the white oak, partly on account of its rarity; but its timber is heavier, and it is thought that it may be found, on accurate examination, to be superior. The black oak is valued not for its timber, which is of an inferior quality, but for its bark, for it is this, which furnishes the *quercitron*, so much used for imparting a beautiful yellow die to wool, paper, &c.*

Next to the pines and oaks, there seems to be no tree in the country, of more extensive celebrity than the *Sugar Maple*. The extraordinary neatness of its appearance, and the beauty of its foliage, which in summer is of the liveliest green, and in autumn assumes the richest and most glowing red, are sufficient to recommend it as a beautiful ornament, in our gardens and avenues. The bark is remarkably smooth, and the tree is infested, we believe, by no insect, nor subject to any maladies. The branches are disposed with much regularity, though without stiffness, and so arranged, that their usual outline is an elegant oval. It is to this tree we are chiefly indebted for the beautiful curled and bird's-eye maple, employed in cabinet work, which rivals, if it be not admitted to

* In a communication in the 4th volume of "The New England Farmer," made several years ago by one of our most distinguished fellow-citizens, mention is made of the trunks of several large oaks in Dorchester, in one of which he had counted upwards of two hundred annual rings. The largest oak, and indeed the largest tree which we have seen in this country, is a white oak, on the estate of James Wadsworth, Esq. of Genesee. The tree is from twenty-four to twenty-seven feet in circumference at the smallest part of the trunk. Its age cannot be less than five hundred years, and it must, therefore, have been a majestic tree at the time when Columbus discovered the western world. It appears to be still in a vigorous and healthy condition, and bears in its exterior no marks whatever of decay. It is by no means improbable that this tree exceeds in size many both in Europe and elsewhere, which are recorded as of greater diameter. For in the measurement of large trees, it is of great importance to ascertain at what part of the trunk the measurement was taken. Every one must have remarked the difference between the bulk of such trees at the surface of the ground, and at a few feet above.

surpass in brilliancy and richness, the finest woods of tropical climates. But the sugar maple derives its chief reputation, as well as its name, from the qualities of its sap. A large portion of the sugar used in many parts of the country, the western districts of Vermont and New York for instance, is derived from the maple. Michaux remarked, nearly thirty years since, that at least ten millions of pounds of this sugar were then annually made in the United States. This quantity is far less than might be procured, from the same source, in case of necessity. According to Dr. Rush, the northern part of New York and Pennsylvania alone, contained at the same period, thirty millions of sugar maple trees; and, if we suppose each tree to yield on an average from two to four pounds of sugar annually, the product would go far towards supplying the whole consumption of the country.

The maple sugar can be made of a quality equal to the best imported. We have seen it formed into very good loaf sugar. It is, however, in a brown state that it is generally used; and, except in the districts where it is produced, it is less agreeable to the palate of consumers generally, than the product of the cane. To manufacture it, requires a great expense not only of labor, but of fuel; and hence it probably cannot be sold, at a distance, for a price which will enable it to compete with the imported article. The sap of the tree, or maple juice, as it is called, is greedily coveted by wild and domestic animals, who break through enclosures for the sake of obtaining it, and is generally an agreeable and wholesome beverage. We have been informed, however, of one instance, in which it proved to be of a highly intoxicating quality. This circumstance occurred, about thirty years since, in the western part of the State of New York. All the sap procured from the maple trees of an extensive district, was found to have undergone a vinous fermentation; and children who drank it freely were in some cases rendered delirious, for two or three days. We have heard of no other instance of this phenomenon, nor have we learned that any probable explanation has been given of its cause.

The last of our forest trees which we shall notice, is one of which we need say but little, either in the way of description or recommendation. We mean our American Elm. In a strictly economical point of view, this tree is of little value, as neither its wood nor its bark is employed to any extent in the

useful arts. It is subject to the disadvantage of being more attacked by the cankerworm, than any other of our forest trees, and is one of the first to shed its foliage in autumn. It is a tree also, which proves rather a troublesome inmate in small gardens and enclosures, as it spreads its roots far and wide, and frequently protrudes them above the surface of the ground, so that it completely monopolizes a large extent of soil. But where a proper space can be allotted to it, there is no tree which rivals it in grace and majesty. Michaux pronounces it to be decidedly the most magnificent vegetable production of the temperate zone. Few, who have seen this tree in favorable situations, will question its right to this pre-eminence. Happily we need not go far to find this remark splendidly illustrated. We refer to the triple row of elms which adorns the Boston Mall. What is there in the finest specimens of architecture in that city, public or private, to which a Bostonian can turn with more pleasure or more exultation? Who has ever contemplated those solid colonnades and shady arches, without grateful feelings to the unknown individual to whose taste and wisdom we owe them? Who doubts that his name, had he chosen to record it, would have been far better perpetuated by such a memorial, than by the proudest monument of brass or marble? We have seen nothing of the same description in any part of the country, to be compared to this magnificent avenue; but every one must have observed single elms, of equal or superior magnitude and beauty to any of the trees of which it is composed. These are generally the relics of our original forests; and the care with which they are now preserved and protected, furnishes a striking and gratifying evidence of an improving taste for sylvan scenery.

We have thus called the attention of our readers to a very few of the forest trees of this country. It might be gratifying to speak also of several of those of the old world; but we could not do so without extending this article beyond its proper limits. We have already observed that the list of European forest trees is far more scanty than ours, and there are very few of them which would be a valuable accession to our botanical treasures. Many of the most important classes or genera of forest trees are common to both continents, such as the oak, ash, elm, &c. Those trees of the old world and the new, which bear the same name, generally resemble each

other to a great degree ; but in almost every instance, the resemblance stops short of complete exactness. Thus we find that the elms, willows, and larches of Europe and America, though manifestly belonging to the same class of vegetable productions, differ from each other materially either in their size, their beauty, or the value of their timber. This seems merely an application of the general law of nature, which leads her to avoid, in all her productions, any thing like mathematical resemblance ; a rule, of which we have a familiar proof, in the fact that no two leaves can be found on any tree, which do not manifestly differ in shape or size.

There is, however, one tree of the old world, which has been rendered so familiar to our imaginations, by early associations both of a poetical and sacred character, that we cannot forbear to speak of it more particularly ; we mean the Cedar of Lebanon. This tree was for a long time supposed to be indigenous only on the mountains of Palestine, whence it derives its name. The researches of later botanists have discovered it on other high ridges, and it has been said to have been found more especially in the northern part of Russia. It is classed with the larches, a place to which it is entitled, among other reasons, by the shape and size of its leaves, and the manner in which they are disposed on its branches. These branches extend themselves to an uncommonly wide distance, are arranged in stages one above another, and are horizontal or rather slightly inclining to the earth, and thus form an irregular penthouse. In the opinion of the best judges, this tree owes its beauty partly to this arrangement of its limbs, and partly to the density and the deep green of its foliage. But it is only in its native mountains, that we can find any magnificent specimens of this renowned plant, and of these specimens the number is small, and constantly diminishing. We are told, that, in 1789 there were only *seven* cedars on Mount Lebanon, of a very large size, one or two of which were found by measurement to be thirty feet in circumference. These noble trees are probably the growth of several centuries, but we should give ourselves up quite too far to the guidance of our fancies, if we supposed, as many writers seem inclined to do, that they were coeval with the days of Solomon. The whole number of cedars on this spot, large and small, is about a hundred ; and they are said to be annually

honored by a pompous religious ceremony, attended by several thousand devotees.

But however magnificent the appearance of this tree, and however numerous and interesting the associations with which it is connected, we are compelled by the testimony of the best authorities, to deny to it some of the qualities with which it has long been invested in popular estimation. It has been called, for instance, a lofty tree. To this title it has no pretension, as we have no well-authenticated account of its exceeding the height of a hundred feet, and it seldom rises to much more than half that elevation.

There is also a popular impression, that its wood is distinguished by durability. This opinion is derived partly from the representations of the ancients,* and partly from the fact, that the timber of its namesakes, the cedars of our own country, is remarkable for this quality. According to the great majority of botanists, the wood of the cedar of Lebanon is an inferior kind of deal, resembling some descriptions of pine, but less durable.

For the purposes of timber, therefore, this tree is unworthy of cultivation. Whether its beauty, and its historical and poetical celebrity, are sufficient recommendations for its introduction, is a question unfortunately of little interest to us, as there is probably no part of the United States, where it could be raised to advantage in the open air. It is true that, in its native locality, it is subjected to a high degree of cold, as it grows immediately below the covering of eternal snow, which rests on the summit of Lebanon. But the atmosphere even of England is unsuited to its full developement, on account of its want of sufficient moisture, and therefore it must be entirely out of the question, to suppose that it could flourish in our proverbially bright and dry climate. It seems to partake of the nature of what are called Alpine plants, and every gardener knows, that such plants are of all others the most difficult to rear, and that it is next to impossible to supply them with a

* It is well known that the ancients were far from accurate in their botanical knowledge, and that, even in our day, nothing is more common or more vexatious, than the great confusion and numerous mistakes, which result from describing vegetable productions merely by their popular names. There is much controversy among botanists, whether the name of cedar was not often given by ancient writers to some species of pine or cypress.

proper equivalent, for the constant shade and moisture, which they enjoy on the cloud-capped tops of their native hills.

It was our intention to have submitted, in this place, a few practical hints on the subject of planting. But as complete directions may be found in books easily accessible, we have concluded rather to occupy the space with an account of the mode in which the business of procuring timber and boards, commonly called lumbering or logging, is carried on in the principal timber regions in Maine. This account was furnished us by a highly intelligent friend residing in Bangor; and we trust may be interesting, from its own merit, as well as from the importance of the branch of industry which it describes.

“When a lumberer has concluded to log on a particular tract, the first step is to go with a part of his hands, and select suitable situations for building his camps. In making this selection, his object is to be as near as possible to the best clumps of timber he intends to haul, and to the streams into which he intends to haul it. He then proceeds to build his camps, and to cut out and clear out his principal roads. The camps are built of logs, being a kind of log houses. They are made about three feet high on one side and eight or nine on the other, with a roof slanting one way. The roof is made of shingles, split out of green wood, and laid upon rafters. The door is made of such boards as can be manufactured out of a log with an axe. Against the tallest side of the camp is built the chimney; the back being formed by the wall of the camp, and the sides made by green logs, piled up for jams, about eight feet apart. The chimney seldom rises above the roof of the camp; though some, who are nice in their architectural notions, sometimes carry it up two or three feet higher. It is obvious, from the construction, that nothing but the greenness of the timber prevents the camp from being burnt up immediately. Yet the great fires that are kept up, make but little impression, in the course of the winter, upon the back or sides of the chimney. A case, however, happened within a year or two, where a camp took fire in the night, and was consumed, and the lumberers in it were burnt to death. Probably the shingle roof had become dry, in which case a spark would kindle it, and the flames would spread over it in a moment.

“Parallel to the lower side of the building, and about six feet from it, a stick of timber runs on the ground across the camp. The space between this and the lower wall is appropriated to the bedding; the stick of timber serving to confine it in its

place. The bedding consists of a layer of hemlock boughs spread upon the ground, and covered with such old quilts and blankets, as the tenants can bring away from their homes. The men camp down together, with their heads to the lower wall and their feet towards the fire. Before going to bed, they replenish their fire; some two or more of them being employed in putting on such logs, as with their handspikes they can manage to pile into the chimney. As the walls of the building are not very tight, the cool air plays freely round the head of the sleeper, making a difference of temperature between the head and the feet not altogether agreeable to one unused to sleep in camps. A rough bench and table complete the furniture of the establishment. A camp very similar, though not so large in its dimensions, is built near for the oxen. On the top of this the hay is piled up, giving it some warmth, while it is convenient for feeding.

“A large logging concern will require a number of camps, which will be distributed over the tract, so as best to accommodate the timber. One camp serves generally for one or two teams. A *team*, in ordinary logging parlance, expresses, not only the set of four or six oxen that draw the logs, but likewise a gang of men employed to tend them. It takes from three or four to seven or eight men, to keep one team employed; one man being employed in driving the cattle, and the others in cutting down the trees, cutting them into logs, barking them, and cutting and clearing the way to each tree. The number of hands required, depends upon the distance to be hauled inversely. That is, most hands are required when the distance is shortest; because the oxen, returning more frequently, require their loads to be prepared more expeditiously.

“Having built their camps, or while building them, the main roads are to be cut out. These run from the camps to the landing places, or some stream of sufficient size to float down the logs on the spring freshet. Other roads are cut to other clumps of timber. They are made by cutting and clearing away the underbrush, and such trees and old logs as may be in the way, to a sufficient width for the team of oxen, with the bob sled and timber on it, to pass conveniently. The bob sled is made to carry one end of the timber only; the other drags upon the ground. And the bark is chipped off, that the log may slip along more easily.

“The teams proceed to the woods when the first snows come, with the hands who are not already there, and the supplies. The supplies consist principally of pork and flour for the men, and Indian meal for the oxen. Some beans, tea, and molasses,

are added. Formerly hogsheads of rum were considered indispensable, and I have before me a bill of supplies for a logging concern of three teams in 1827-28, in which I find one hundred and eighty gallons of rum charged. But of late, very few respectable lumberers take any spirits with them. And the logging business is consequently carried on with much more method, economy, and profit. The pork and flour must be of the best quality. Lumberers are seldom content to take any of an inferior sort; and even now, when flour is twelve dollars a barrel, they are not to be satisfied with the coarser bread stuffs.

"Hay is procured as near to the camps as possible. But as most of the timber lands are remote from settlements, it is generally necessary to haul it a considerable distance. And as it must be purchased of the nearest settlers, they are enabled to obtain very high prices. From twelve to twenty dollars per ton is usually paid. When the expense of hauling it to the camp is added, the whole cost is frequently as high as thirty dollars a ton, and sometimes much higher. Owners of timber lands at a distance from settlements, may make a great saving, by clearing up a piece of their land, and raising their own hay.

"Some one of the hands, who has not so much efficiency in getting timber, as skill in kneading bread and frying pork, is appointed to the office of cook. Salt pork, flour, bread and tea, constitute the regular routine of the meals, varied sometimes with salt fish or salt beef. Potatoes are used when they can be had. Now and then, perhaps, when the snow is deep, they catch a deer and live on venison.

"The men are employed through the day, in cutting the timber and driving the teams. In the evening some take care of the oxen; some cut wood for the fire; then they amuse themselves with stories and singing, or in other ways, until they feel inclined to turn in upon the universal bed. On Sundays the employer claims no control over their time, beyond the taking care of the cattle, the fire and the cooking. On this day, they do their washing and mending; some employ themselves besides, in seeking timber and some in hunting partridges; whilst some remain in the camp and read the Bible.

"They remain in the woods from the commencement of sledging, some time in December, until some time in March; in the course of which month, their labors are usually brought to a close, either by the snow's getting too shallow or too deep. If there are heavy thaws, the snow runs off, not leaving enough to make good hauling. If, on the other hand, it gets to be four or five feet deep, the oxen cannot break through it, to make the path which it is necessary to form, in order to get at each indi-

vidual tree. The men and teams then leave the woods. Sometimes one or two remain, to be at hand, when the streams open. I know one, who last winter stayed by himself in the woods, fifteen or twenty miles from the nearest habitation, for the space of twenty-eight days; during which time he earned \$203 by getting in timber with his axe alone, being allowed for it at the same rate per thousand that the lumberers were, in getting it in with their teams. He found some berths in the banks of the stream, where all that was necessary was to fell the tree so that it should fall directly upon the water, and there cut it into logs to be ready for running.

“When the streams are opened, and there is a sufficient freshet to float the timber, another gang, called “river drivers,” take charge of it. It is their business to start it from the banks, and follow it down the river, clearing off what lodges against rocks, pursuing and bringing back the sticks that run wild among the bushes and trees, that cover the low lands adjoining the river, and breaking up jams that form in narrow or shallow places. A *jam* is caused by obstacles in the river catching some of the sticks, which in their turn catch others coming down, and so the mass increases until a solid dam is formed, which entirely stops up the river, and prevents the further passage of any logs. These dams are most frequently formed at the top of some fall. And it is often a service that requires much skill and boldness, and is attended with much danger, to break them up. The persons who undertake it must go on to the mass of logs, work some out with their pickpoles, cut some to pieces, attach ropes to others to be hauled out by the hands on shore, and they must be on the alert to watch the moment of the starting of the timber, and exercise all their activity to get clear of it, before they are carried off in its tumultuous rush.

“Some weeks, more or less, according to the distance, spent in this way, brings the timber to the neighbourhood of the saw mills. A short distance above Oldtown, on the Penobscot, there is a boom established, extending across the river, for the purpose of stopping all the logs that come down. It is made by a floating chain of logs connected by iron links, and supported at suitable distances, by solid piers built in the river; without this it would be impossible to stop a large part of the logs, and they would be carried on the freshet down the river, and out to sea. The boom is owned by an individual, who derives a large profit from the boomage, which is thirty-five cents per thousand on all logs coming into it. The boom cost the present owner about \$40,000. He has offered it for sale for \$45,000. It is said the net income from it last year, was \$15,000.

“Here all the logs that come down the Penobscot, are collected in one immense mass, covering many acres, where is intermingled the property of all the owners of timber lands, in all the broad region that is watered by the Penobscot and its branches, from the east line of Canada above Moosehead Lake, on the one side, to the west line of New Brunswick, on the other. Here the timber remains, till the logs can be sorted out for each owner, and rafted together to be floated to the mills, or other places below. *Rafting* is the connecting the logs together, by cordage, which is secured by pins driven into each log, forming them into bands, like the ranks of a regiment. This operation is performed by the owner of the boom. The ownership of the timber is ascertained by the marks which have been chopped into each log before it left the woods; each owner having a mark, or combination of marks, of his own. When the boom is full, only the logs lowest down can be got at, and the proprietors of other logs must wait weeks, sometimes months, before they can get them out, to their great inconvenience and damage.

“After the logs are rafted, and out of the boom, a great part of them are lodged for convenience, in a place called Pen Cove, which is a large and secure basin in the river, about two miles below the boom. From this cove they can be taken out as they are wanted for the mills below. While in the boom, and at other places on the river, they are liable to great loss from plunderers. The owners or drivers of logs will frequently smuggle all that come in their way, without regard to marks. The owners or conductors of some of the mills on the river are said to be not above encouraging and practising this species of piracy. Indeed timber, in all its stages, seems to be considered a fair object for plunderers, from the petty pilferer who steals into the woods, fells a tree, cuts it into shingles and carries it out on his back, to the comparatively rich owner of thousands of dollars.

“When the logs have been sawn at the mills, there is another rafting of the boards, which are floated down the river to Bangor, to be embarked on board the coasters for Boston. In this process they are subject to much injury, first by the mode of catching them as they come from the mill sluices, the rafters making use of a picaroon, or pole with a spike in the end of it, which is repeatedly and unmercifully driven into the boards, taking out perhaps a piece at each time; secondly, by the holes made by the pins driven into the boards in rafting; and thirdly, by the rocks and rapids and shallows in the river, breaking the rafts to pieces, and splitting up the boards as they descend. These inconveniences will be partly remedied by the railroad now in

operation, unless other inconveniences in the use of it should be found to overbalance them.

“The kinds of timber brought down our rivers are pine, spruce, hemlock, ash, birch, maple, cedar, and hackmatack. Far the greater part of it is pine. The lumberers make about six kinds of pine; though they do not agree exactly in the classification, or in the use of some of the names. The most common division is into pumpkin pine, timber pine, sapling, bull sapling,* Norway, and yellow or pitch pine. The pumpkin pine stands preëminent in the affections of the lumberers, because it is the largest tree, and makes fine large clear boards. They are soft and of a yellowish cast. The timber pine and saplings are the most common. The former is generally preferred, as being larger and more likely to be sound. Yet the saplings are said to make the harder and more durable boards. The common sapling grows in low lands, generally very thick, but is apt to be much of it rotten. The bull sapling is larger and sounder, grows on higher land, and mixed with hard wood. The Norway pine† is a much harder kind of timber than the others. It is seldom sawed into boards, though it makes excellent floor boards. But it is generally hewed into square timber. In the Provinces it bears a higher price than the others. There is not much of it brought to market, and it is not very abundant in the woods. The yellow pine is very scarce, if to be found at all in that region.

“I will conclude with some remarks upon the different modes of operating, made use of by owners of timber. These are three. One is, for the owner to hire his men by the month, procure teams, and furnish them with equipments and supplies. A second is, to agree with some one or more individuals to cut and haul the timber, or cut, haul, and run it, at a certain price per thousand feet. The third way is to sell the *stumpage* outright; that is, to sell the timber standing.

“The first mode is seldom adopted, unless the owner of the timber is likewise a lumberer, and intends to superintend the business himself. The second mode is very common. It is considered the most saving to the owners, because the lumberer has no inducement to select the best timber, and leave all that is not of the first quality; to cut down trees and take a log, and leave others to rot that are not quite so good, but which may be well worth hauling. Its inconveniences are, that as the object of the lumberer is to get as large a quantity as possible, he will

* All the kinds here named, with the exception of the two last, are varieties of white pine.

† This pine is called also red pine, from the color of its bark.

take trees that are not worth as much as the cost of getting them to market, and which, besides being of little value themselves, render the whole lot less saleable by the bad appearance they give it. The owner too is subject to all the losses that may happen, in running the logs down the river. Very frequently he is obliged to make one contract to have the timber cut and hauled to the landing places, and another to have it run down; for the river drivers are a distinct class from the lumberers. Most of them are indeed lumberers. But it is but a small part of the lumberers, that are river drivers. A great part of the lumberers are farmers who must be on their farms at the season of driving, and therefore cannot undertake any thing but the cutting and hauling. They are paid for the number of thousand feet they deposit at the landing places; and the logs being surveyed, or sealed, as they are hauled, their object is to get as many thousand as possible on the landing places; while the river drivers may be very careless about getting them all down, and the owner may never receive nearly the quantity he has paid for cutting and hauling. In operating in this mode, the owner usually furnishes the supplies, provisions, &c.; and the lumberer procures the teams and hires the men. The owner commonly does not bind himself to pay, before the logs get to market; and he frequently makes a contract for his supplies on the same condition, in which case he has to pay from twenty-five to thirty-three per cent. more for his goods, than he would dealing on cash or common credit. Sometimes, when there is no freshet, the logs do not get down until the second year; and then the trader and lumberer both suffer for want of their pay.

“The third mode is the simplest and easiest for the owner. He avoids all trouble of furnishing supplies, of watching the timber on the river, and of looking out for a market. But he must have a man of some capital to deal with, as he furnishes his own teams and supplies, and pays his men, receiving very heavy advances. The purchaser of it has no interest to cut the timber savingly, and he sometimes makes dreadful havock among the trees, leaving a great deal of valuable stuff on the ground to rot. And if he selects only the best trees in a berth, much of the timber left standing may be lost, because no one will afterwards want to go into that berth, from which all the best trees have been culled. It is common now, in all large concerns, for the owner to employ a man to pass the winter in the camps, living alternately at one or another, for the purpose of sealing the logs, keeping a correct account of them, and seeing that the timber is cut according to the contract. But, after all, there is

always found to be a considerable difference between timber cut by the thousand, and that which is cut on stumpage.

“Each mode has its troubles. But I think that owners at a distance will manage their concerns with least vexation by selling the stumpage, provided that they have honest men to deal with.”

The public attention is, of late, we hope, more alive than it has been, to the value of our forests, and to the necessity of economizing what yet remains of these rich national treasures, and of replacing what has been so carelessly wasted. This necessity is every day making itself more manifest. Fuel has already become scarce in our seaports, or rather on our whole seacoast; a fact worthy the serious consideration of those, who reflect that the sufferings of the poor, from the want of this article, are probably greater than from all other causes united. Our best timber also is becoming more and more costly, and our civil and naval architects are constantly driven to the employment of that of inferior quality. The live oak of the southern States is already procured for our navy yards with great difficulty, and in fifty years will probably disappear from our soil; and our own white oak, as well as our other most valuable timber trees, must follow at no very distant period. It is in the power of every one who possesses a few acres of land, to do much to arrest this mighty evil; and what might not be anticipated from a simultaneous effort on the part of cultivators in our commonwealth, or even in a single county? And all this, at the expense, on the part of each individual, of a few shillings of money and a few hours of interesting labor. If we owe any thing to posterity, in what way could we confer on them so great a benefit at so cheap a rate?

It is not, however, strictly true, or rather it is not the whole truth, to say with Virgil, that he who plants benefits his remote posterity. A friend of ours once observed, that those who set out forest trees, reminded him of the student, who on hearing that a crow would live for a century, bought a young one, for the sake of watching the experiment. As a stroke of humor, this remark is privileged from criticism; but as a statement of facts, it must be received with much qualification. It is no uncommon circumstance to find oaks of twenty years' growth, of more than a foot in diameter, and of forty or fifty feet in height; and we have seen an English willow of only

double that age, measuring, at several feet from the ground, more than seven yards in circumference. Were planting commenced at the time when our young men usually enter on their professions or their business, how many might live to enjoy the shade of majestic groves of their own raising !

These remarks may derive some additional interest from the fact, that a taste for rural occupations is rapidly springing up and extending itself in our large cities, and that objects of this description are gradually absorbing more and more of the capital as well as the intelligence, of that portion of our community. Where indeed could they find a source of entertainment more pure, more copious, or more beneficial to themselves or their fellow citizens ? To say nothing of the value of forest trees for what are strictly denominated useful purposes, let us ask in what way any individual among us can do more to decorate and beautify the country. How many millions have been devoted in this, as well as in other communities, to architecture, and yet how little have the results corresponded to the time, the effort, and the money so expended ! For one chaste and magnificent edifice, we have ten irregular and disproportioned piles, countenancing, and almost justifying, the sweeping remark of a French author, that the Genius of architecture had shed his malediction on America. But he who rears a stately grove or avenue, bestows an ornament on his native land, which none but a Vandal would wish to destroy. How much has been done in this city and its beautiful environs, by the taste and public spirit of a few individuals ! To pass over numerous other instances, we are indebted to one of former days, as we have already observed, for the chief ornament of Boston, the triple colonnade of weeping elms in the Mall ; and it is owing to the good taste of another accomplished individual of the present day, that the majestic, or, as we may now call them, the sacred groves of Mount Auburn, were rescued from the woodman's axe.

It is not merely, however, to those who are or may be practically engaged in the propagation or preservation of forest trees, though these we hope are not few, that our remarks are directed. Though comparatively a small number may be the planters or the owners of groves or of gardens, all may be admirers of forest scenery. For the indulgence of such a taste we have the highest intellectual authority. "A tree in full leaf," says Lord Bacon, "is a nobler object than a king

in his coronation robes." But it is in a community like our own, above all others, that a taste for the beauties of forest trees, as well as an acquaintance with their nature and uses, should be carefully cultivated. It is sufficient to recommend it, that it furnishes a never-failing source of occupation and amusement to those who travel in this country, and a strong additional inducement to the general adoption of this practice, so essential and at the same time so neglected. Is it not a fact that a large proportion of those among us, who enjoy the leisure and the means for visiting other regions, confine their researches exclusively to Europe; and if it be so, is it altogether creditable to our good taste, to say nothing more? How far the practice of travelling in other countries may be advisable, is a question we do not intend to agitate, though we are convinced, after some reflection and experience, that its advantages have been astonishingly overrated. But while years are frequently employed in exploring the European continent, a few months spent in visiting the most interesting portions of our own, must assuredly be considered as any thing but wasted. Personal intercourse, if not the only, is certainly the chief means, by which the inhabitants of the different States of our widely-extended Union may be enabled to acquire a proper knowledge of the wants and the character of each other, and above all to cherish those feelings of regard, so essential to the prosperity, if not the existence of our nation. The press, however great the obligations we owe it, is of necessity always an imperfect, and sometimes an unfaithful mirror of public sentiment; and it is to personal intercourse, and to the spirit of mutual fairness and friendship, which such intercourse will assuredly generate, that we must look to supply the deficiencies, and correct the aberrations, of that mighty engine of good and of evil. It were to be wished, indeed, that the practice of travelling extensively in our own country were often pursued, at least as a preliminary to an European tour. We should not find in that case, as we think we now do in some instances, the most incorrect representations of the character and manners of our population, proceeding from the pens of our own tourists in other countries. To many of our best-educated and most accomplished men, the interior of other States, if not of their own, is a *Terra Incognita*, and this too in spite of those facilities of communication, which exist in the United States, to a greater degree than in almost any portion of the old world. We need not state

how thinly this country is peopled in comparison with any other in an equal state of advancement, nor repeat, how large a portion of those wide spaces which separate our principal settlements from each other, is covered with magnificent forests. The traveller, who can relish the beauties of these splendid collections of vegetable wonders, can have few intervals of idleness or weariness.

Yet however valuable we may consider a taste for these prominent beauties of our own scenery, merely as a never-failing source of occupation and enjoyment, there are still other reasons of the highest moment, why such a taste should be anxiously cherished; we mean as one of the principal sources of an ardent and deep-felt patriotism. We trust that our country has, in the view of all of us, other qualities than the beauties of her natural scenery, to recommend her to her proper rank in our estimation. There is in her institutions, political, intellectual, and religious, more than enough to justify us in the preference which we give to our native land over all others. But patriotism, wherever it has existed in a high degree, has been, we apprehend, a *sentiment*, as well as a principle, and is something more than a cold feeling of preference. It is in truth an emotion of a complex character, and if we would cherish towards our country an enthusiastic attachment, we should not suffer ourselves to be blind to those charms, whether of nature or of art, which may recommend her to our fancy, as well as our sober judgment. Why should not the mind of an American think upon those majestic forests, whose beauties are commemorated throughout the civilized world, with something of the feeling which stirs in the bosoms respectively of a patriotic Frenchman or Englishman, when their thoughts revert to the vine-covered hills and gay regions of France, or the spreading oaks and verdant lawns of merry England?

It is truly gratifying to reflect on the progress which has been made within a very few years, in the study and development of the internal resources of this country. In former times, the political condition of Europe, and the embarrassments, in which we were involved by the conduct of the leading belligerents, formed not only the predominant, but the sole topics of deep public interest. Little time or thought could be spared, little at any rate was spared, for the examination and improvement of our internal condition. What, for instance, had been done for the advancement of our agricul-

ture and manufactures ; and what was known of our gold regions, our coal mines, or our quarries ? Such was the state of things from the very foundation of our national government to the signing of the treaty of Ghent. It is one of the chief national blessings which have resulted from our present peaceful condition, that we have been enabled and induced to turn our thoughts *inward* ; that the vast natural riches of our land are no longer trodden under foot without the slightest investigation, nor its majestic and beautiful scenery passed by with a heedless glance.

Whether we regard this spirit of investigation merely as political economists, or as moralists and patriots, whether we look to its effects on the wealth or on the happiness of our community, we are sure that to cultivate and to cherish it must be regarded as a sacred duty.

ART. III. — 1. *Œuvres Complètes de C. DELAVIGNE.* Bruxelles.

2. *Chansons de BÉRANGER.* Bruxelles.

3. *Œuvres d' ALPHONSE DE LAMARTINE.* Paris.

4. *Harmonies Poétiques et Religieuses*, par A. DE LAMARTINE. Paris.

THE difference between the French and English schools of poetry is certainly much greater, than can be accounted for by the mere influence of national peculiarities. The romantic spirit eminently pervades English literature ; its luxuriance of coloring, its marvellous union of things apparently inconsistent, and its blending of the visions of poetical fancy with the expectations of a higher destiny, are everywhere visible in the works of our poets. The French, on the other hand, have sought their materials of fiction chiefly in the past ; and the genius of the past, the spirit of classical antiquity, has been invoked and adopted by them. Nature, as she appears in the external world, and as she is manifested in the thoughts and actions of man, is the divinity of the English. The French have done homage to art ; refined and glorious art, it is true, but still art ; and when they have admitted nature into their exhibitions, she has been compelled to play a subordinate part,